

1 **Ionic liquid-mediated recovery of carotenoids from the *Bactris gasipaes* fruit waste**
2 **and their application in food-packaging chitosan films**

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25 **Abstract:** In this work, the extraction of carotenoids from the fruit of the Amazonian
26 *Bactris gasipaes* was developed. Ethanolic and aqueous solutions of ionic liquids (ILs),
27 and surfactants were evaluated on the extraction of these pigments. Thus, we developed
28 an optimized sustainable downstream process mediated by the best solvent with further
29 isolation of the carotenoids and the recyclability of the IL used. The process was
30 characterized, not only in terms of efficiency but also regarding its environmental impact.
31 The recyclability of the solvents, as well as the high efficiency (maximum yield of
32 extraction of carotenoids = $88.7 \pm 0.9 \mu\text{g}_{\text{carotenoids}} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{dried biomass}}^{-1}$) and the low environmental
33 impact of the integrated process developed in this work, were demonstrated. In the end,
34 in order to incorporate functional activity for an alternative food-packaging material,
35 carotenoids were successfully applied on the preparation of chitosan-based films with
36 excellent results regarding their mechanical parameters and antioxidant activity.

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38 **Keywords:** all-*trans*- β -carotene; sustainable downstream process; ionic liquid; bio-based
39 material; sustainable material;

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47 **Introduction**

48 The exploration of natural resources to produce consumer goods and commodities is
49 being deeply investigated. New or improved production technologies have been
50 developed to mitigate the residues disposal, while simultaneously enhancing the
51 valorization of by-products.¹ There is nowadays a real demand for the creation of more
52 sustainable and efficient downstream processes able to recover bio compounds usually
53 discarded in biological waste, in spite of their potential for a large range of commercial
54 applications.^{2,3} Food waste is, in this scenario, one of the major problems worldwide.
55 Actually, the European commission is calling the attention for their impacts in a daily-
56 base. It is estimated that in EU, around 88 million tones of food wastes are generated
57 annually with associated costs around the 143 billion euros.⁴ As it has been successively
58 explained by authorities worldwide, wasting food has serious ethic and economic
59 impacts. While the demand for food increases proportionally with the human population,
60 being estimated to reach 9.1 billion by 2050,⁵ the environmental impact of the residues
61 generated is growing, severely damaging the environment and negatively impacting the
62 climate (food alone is responsible for about 8% of Global Gas Emissions).⁶ While
63 reducing the food losses and wastes will help achieving the Sustainable Development
64 Goals, the design of more sustainable downstream processes will allow the wastes
65 industrial valorization, meeting the demands of both Circular Economy and Biorefinery
66 strategies.⁷⁻⁹

67 In addition to Europe, for many developing countries, such as Brazil, India and China,
68 with high social heterogeneity and cyclical economic crises, the reduction of food wastes
69 is a huge challenge.¹⁰ In Brazil, 41 million tons of food are wasted every year.¹⁰ In
70 contrast, Brazil has a massive food biodiversity, with 18% of the plants of the world,¹¹
71 and therefore, many unused raw materials to be explored, contributing thus for the

72 creation of new bio-based products.¹² In this context, the business of palm heart (*Bactris*
73 *gasipaes*) is a very good example of an important agro-food activity from the Brazilian
74 Amazonian region, originally cultivated by indigenous populations.¹³ Palm hearts, known
75 in Brazil as “palmito”, are the edible stipe-apical meristem of the palm tree, the main
76 agro-product of this species. Known as a predatory crop, the Brazilian Ministry of
77 Agriculture (EMBRAPA), recommends that the palmito be harvested after the fruit
78 ripening.¹⁴ However, despite this recommendation, their fruits are usually discarded.¹⁵
79 *Bactris gasipaes* fruits, popularly known as peach palm, are an excellent source of
80 carotenoids and other secondary metabolites.¹⁶ Carotenoids are natural pigments with
81 high antioxidant and anti-inflammatory activity, and therefore, with commercial
82 interest.¹⁷ Depending of the application, the choice of the carotenoid method-extraction
83 from food matrices is crucial to ensure safety for the end product.¹⁸ Nevertheless, the
84 most common and efficient industrial downstream processes to produce carotenoids are
85 usually mediated by organic synthesis; or in some cases (lycopene and astaxanthin) by
86 extraction mediated by conventional organic solvents. Despite the different natural
87 sources available rich in carotenoids, their recovery from the biomass is not easy.¹⁹ We
88 have reviewed the different strategies employed on the recovery and purification of
89 natural products, which included the use of membranes, imprinted polymers,
90 chromatography and alternative solvents, including ionic liquids and deep eutectic
91 solvents.^{20,21} Synthetic dyes, which are considered as more stable and cheaper than their
92 natural counterparts are usually reported as carcinogenic and allergenic for humans.²²
93 Therefore, strategies for obtaining natural, thermally stable and low toxic carotenoids are
94 in high demanded, moreover when considering the rapid growth of the market of anti-
95 oxidant products and formulations.^{23–25}

96 Bio-based materials with antioxidant properties are nowadays one of the hottest topics
97 in the food sector.²⁶ Non-ecofriendly packages have been considered as one of the most
98 important environmental problems to be solved, mainly in what concerns the use of
99 plastic.²⁷ Thinking on a Circular Economy perspective, chitosan-based films are good
100 candidates to replace the widespread use of non-degradable materials. According to
101 Guillard et al.²⁸ the replacement of 50% of plastic food packaging by alternative materials
102 can generate savings of 56 million tons of plastic/year. Chitosan is the second most
103 abundant polysaccharide in nature, being renewable, easy to obtain, eco-friendly and
104 nontoxic.²⁷ Despite the chitosan-based films poor mechanical properties,²⁹ they are an
105 excellent basis to develop packaging materials with antioxidant and antimicrobial
106 activities that would improve the food shelf-life and the preservation of its organoleptic
107 properties.^{30,31}

108 This work addresses the development of the integrated process for the recovery of
109 natural carotenoids from *Bactris gasipaes* fruits, namely the all-*trans*- β -carotene, all-
110 *trans*-lycopene and the all-*trans*- γ -carotene.^{16,32} Various ethanolic and aqueous solutions
111 of ionic liquids (ILs), with and without tensioactive nature, and two common surfactants
112 were evaluated. After selection of the best solvent to extract the carotenoids, the process
113 conditions of the solid-liquid extraction, including the solid-liquid ratio $R_{(S/L)}$, the time
114 of extraction, and the concentration of IL ($Conc_{IL}$), were studied and optimized. The
115 carotenoids isolation was studied by applying water as anti-solvent. The environmental
116 impact of the proposed process was evaluated through the analysis of carbon footprint
117 and complete E-factor. In the end, the carotenoids purified and isolated were utilized on
118 the preparation of chitosan-based films. The mechanical properties of the membranes
119 prepared were tested, namely the tensile strength, Young's modulus, elongation at break,

120 thickness and elasticity. Moreover, the wettability and solubility of the membranes in
121 water were also studied.

122

123 **Material and methods**

124 **Fruits and raw materials.** The *Bactris gasipaes* fruits studied were collected in the
125 Bahia State, northeast region of Brazil (Ilhéus city: 14°50'00.47''S, 39°01'51.98''W).
126 The fruits belong to the same batch previously studied,³³ and their respective samples
127 were pretreated as follows. Briefly, after manual seed removal, the peach palm edible
128 parts were immediately frozen at -100 °C, lyophilized for 48 h and then stored at -40°C.
129 The biomass composition was performed following the proximal characterization method
130 according to Association of Official Analytical Chemists (AOAC).³⁴

131

132 **Chemicals.** 1-hexyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride ([C₆mim]Cl), 1-octyl-3-
133 methylimidazolium chloride ([C₈mim]Cl), 1-decyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride
134 ([C₁₀mim]Cl), 1-dodecyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride ([C₁₂mim]Cl), 1-tetradecyl-3-
135 methylimidazolium chloride ([C₁₄mim]Cl), 1-butyl-3-methylimidazolium
136 tetrafluoroborate ([C₄mim][BF₄]) were purchased from IOLITEC, with purities > 98%.
137 1-dodecyl-trimethylammonium bromide ([N_{1,1,1,12}]Br) and 1-tetradecyl-
138 trimethylammonium bromide ([N_{1,1,1,14}]Br) were purchased from Alfa Aesar, with
139 purities higher than 98%. 1-decyl-trimethylammonium bromide ([N_{1,1,1,10}]Br) and 1-
140 decyl-trimethylammonium chloride ([N_{1,1,1,10}]Cl) (> 98% of purity) were purchased from
141 TCI. SDS and Tween 20 were purchased from PanReac AppliChem, with purities > 98%.
142 To prepare the bio-based films, chitosan from shrimp of medium molecular weight with
143 a degree of deacetylation of 85% and glycerol were supplied by Sigma-Aldrich (St Louis,
144 MO, USA). The antioxidant activity was performed using anhydrous sodium carbonate

145 (99%) and 2,2'-azino-bis(3-ethylbenzthiazoline-6-sulphonic) (ABTS, 99%) were
146 purchased from Fluka (St Louis, MO). All other reagents used were of analytical grade.

147

148 **Solid-liquid extraction using organic solvents.** A conventional approach with pure
149 acetone and ethanol, applied as controls, was performed to compare the yield of
150 carotenoids extraction with the alternative extraction mediated by ILs and two traditional
151 surfactants. The peach palm fruits were incubated for 90 min with a solid-liquid ratio of
152 0.1, meaning 0.5 g of biomass in 5 mL of solvent, at room temperature with
153 homogenization at 80 RPM. After, the solutions were centrifuged (5000 RPM, 4 °C, 30
154 min) and the supernatant was stored at – 40°C for further analysis. The extracts were
155 performed in triplicated being presented for discussion the average and respective
156 standard deviations. The purification of the carotenoids obtained by these processes were
157 mediated also by organic solvents, namely diethyl and petroleum ether.^{16,33}

158

159 **Alternative solid-liquid extraction using ILs and common surfactants.** The potential
160 of extraction of different ethanolic and aqueous solutions of surface-active ILs and
161 common surfactants were evaluated regarding the recovery of carotenoids from the dried
162 biomass. Included in the set of solvents tested are aqueous and ethanolic solutions of ILs
163 from the imidazolium, ammonium and phosphonium families, polysorbate 20 (Tween 20)
164 and sodium lauryl sulfate (SDS). For the solvents' screening, the concentration of 250
165 mM, $R_{(S/L)}$ of 0.1 and 90 min of time of exposure, were the conditions fixed. The samples
166 were centrifuged at 80 RPM. The yield of extraction of carotenoids ($\mu\text{g}_{\text{carotenoids}} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{dried}}$
167 biomass^{-1}) was determined by HPLC-DAD using the method described by de Souza
168 Mesquita et al. (2019).³³ The assays were performed in triplicate for each system and each

169 condition tested. The results were thus expressed considering the mean associated to the
170 respective standard deviations.

171 After the screening with the alternative solvents, the most promising system, meaning
172 the one having the highest yield of extraction for carotenoids from the peach palm fruit,
173 was selected. The optimization of the process was executed by applying a central
174 composite rotatable design (CCRD; 2^3 plus axial) with six replicates at the central point,
175 totalizing 20 extractions. The independent variables optimized were the solvent
176 concentration (C_{IL}), time of extraction (t) and solid-liquid ratio ($R_{(S/L)}$). The results
177 obtained were statistically verified for a confidence level of 95%. The surface responses
178 were plotted changing two variables within the experimental range. The dependent
179 variable here evaluated was the total yield of extraction of carotenoids, considering the
180 amount of all-*trans*-lycopene, all-*trans*- β -carotene, and the all-*trans*- γ -carotene extracted,
181 since these are the most abundant in this biomass. After analysing the RSM results, the
182 best conditions for the carotenoids' extraction for the best solvent were determined, and
183 the model was validated in triplicate (predicted x experimentally determined). The
184 Statistica 12.0 software was used to analyse the results allowing the response surfaces
185 determination.

186

187 **Carotenoids polishing and recycling of the best solvent.** After the validation and
188 respective optimization of the alternative process, the carotenoid's recovery was
189 performed by using water as an anti-solvent, which consequently allowed the
190 precipitation of carotenoids. Five conditions were tested considering the determination of
191 the amount of water required, namely 2x, 3x, 5x, 10x and 50x more water added to the
192 carotenoids-rich extract with an initial volume of 5 mL. After isolation of the main
193 solvents, consecutive cycles of extraction of carotenoids from new biomass samples were

194 tested aiming at to evaluate the performance of the best solvent after being recycled. In
195 this work, 3 new cycles were carried and its performance evaluated by the analysis of the
196 extraction efficiency ($\mu\text{g}_{\text{carotenoids}} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{biomass}}^{-1}$).

197 **IL quantification.** The IL quantification was performed by ionic chromatography
198 (bromide detection). The analysis of the samples was carried on a Dionex 2000i/SP Ion
199 Chromatograph with conductivity detector. The bromide was analysed on a AS4A SC (25
200 cm X 4mm I.D) with an AG4A-SC guard column 4 mm I.D. It was detected by a
201 suppressed conductivity detector using an Anion Micro-Membrane AMMS-I with
202 regenerant of 25 mN of sulfuric acid. The injection volume was 10 μL , and the flow rate
203 was 2.0 $\text{mL} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$. The chromatograms were recorded on a Chromjet integrator from
204 Dionex.

205

206 **Thermal gravimetric assay (TGA).** TGA assays (SETSYS Evolution 1750 analyser -
207 Setaram Instrumentation) were performed. Briefly, each sample was heated at a constant
208 rate of 10 $^{\circ}\text{C} \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$ from 20 to 540 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ under a nitrogen flow of 200 $\text{cm}^3 \cdot \text{min}^{-1}$.

209

210 **Monosaccharides analysis.** Neutral monosaccharides were determined as alditol
211 acetates by gas chromatography.³⁵ Briefly, the samples were hydrolyzed using a solution
212 of sulfuric acid (2 M at 120 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 1 h). The monosaccharides were reduced with sodium
213 borohydride and acetylated using acetic anhydride. 2-Deoxyglucose was used as internal
214 standard. The alditol acetates were analyzed by gas chromatography (GC) in a 30
215 m capillary column DB-225 (J&W Scientific, Folsom, CA, USA), with an internal
216 diameter of 0.25 mm and a film thickness of 0.15 μm . The GC was equipped with a flame
217 ionization detector (GC-FID Clarus 400, Perkin Elmer, MA, USA) and the
218 monosaccharides were identified by retention time comparison with external standards.

219 The analyses were performed in triplicate. The uronic acids were determined according
220 to a modification of the 3-phenylphenol colorimetric method.³⁵ The samples (2 mg) were
221 hydrolyzed using sulfuric acid (1 M at 100 °C for 1 h). A calibration curve was made
222 with D-galacturonic acid (0-200 mg mL⁻¹). The analyses were performed in triplicate.

223 **Environmental evaluation by determination of carbon footprint and complete E-**

224 **factor.** The carbon footprint consists in the sum of greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions
225 expressed as carbon dioxide equivalent (CO₂ eq) from a life cycle perspective, while the
226 complete E-factor assesses the efficiency of a process by measuring the total amount of
227 waste generated during the process, including water, relative to each isolated product. In
228 both cases, the stages of fruit preparation, extraction and polishing were assessed. The
229 carbon footprint considers the GHG emissions from the production of all chemicals, water
230 and electricity consumed during the three stages. All data required for the environmental
231 evaluation regarding chemicals, water and electricity consumed were obtained
232 experimentally (Table S1 from ESI) and the GHG emission factors were taken from from
233 Ecoinvent database version 3.5 (Ecoinvent, 2018) (Table S2 from ESI).³⁶ To calculate the
234 complete E-factor, data on the amounts of waste generated from the use of [N_{1,1,1,10}]Br,
235 acetone, ethanol, water, petroleum ether and diethyl ether in the integrated system were
236 obtained during the experiments. The analysis was performed considering 4 distinct
237 scenarios, which are different from each other considering the amount of raw-materials
238 as well as their energy dependence. The scenario 1 and 2 are the conditions mediated by
239 IL-extraction, without and with recycling of the raw-materials, respectively. The scenario
240 3 and 4 are different from each other considering the conventional organic solvent used,
241 respectively acetone and ethanol; in both, carotenoid isolation was performed using ether
242 mixtures.^{16,33} Further details on the calculation of carbon footprint and complete E-factor
243 can be found in the ESI.

244 **Chitosan biofilms preparation.** The chitosan solutions were prepared by dissolving
245 1.5% (w:v) of chitosan in 5% (v:v) of acetic acid aqueous solution under stirring for 16h
246 at room temperature. The films were divided into 3 samples. In each film sample, a
247 different amount of carotenoids was added, namely 0.025% (w:w), 0.050% (w:w) and
248 0.100% (w:w), meaning the amount of carotenoids *per* total amount of chitosan. In the
249 biofilms preparation, the carotenoids used were those obtained after purification with the
250 best solvent and acetone. To prepare the chitosan-based films (n = 6), after the addition
251 and homogenization of glycerol (0.75 %, w:w), the pure carotenoids in ethanol were
252 added to the mixture and homogenized by ultra-dispersor at 19000 RPM for 3 min. After,
253 the biofilms were filtrated, degassed and transferred to a pexiglass plate (144 cm² with 3
254 mm deep). The plates were placed in the oven for 16h at 35°C to form the film by solvent
255 casting. Biofilms without carotenoids were done by the same procedure to be evaluated
256 as controls.

257

258 **Chitosan biofilms characterization**

259 **Thickness and mechanical assays.** The thickness of the films produced was evaluated
260 after the complete drying of the material, one day after their preparation. These
261 measurements were performed using a hand-held digital micrometer (Mitutoyo
262 Corporation). Six measurements were taken in random areas of the films. The results were
263 expressed as the mean \pm respective standard deviations and used for the calculation of the
264 contact area (mm²). The mechanical properties of the chitosan-based films, with and
265 without carotenoids, were evaluated by uniaxial tensile tests at room temperature with
266 monitored air humidity (model Ta.Hdi, Stable Micro Systems) equipped with fixed grips
267 lined with thin rubber in the ends. The films were cut in strips with 90 mm length and 10
268 mm wide for the determination of their tensile properties. The terminal positions of the

269 films were fixed in the grips with an initial separation settled at 50 mm. The crosshead
270 speed was set at constant rate of 0.5 mm.s⁻¹. The contact area (mm²), Young's modulus
271 (*E*), tensile strength or stress at break (σ_b) and elongation or strain at break (ϵ_b) were
272 determined from stress-strain curves obtained from uniaxial tensile testes to film failure.
273 These parameters were calculated based on ASTM D 882-83 standard method. All the
274 analysis were performed using at least 6 replicates and adopting the methodologies
275 described elsewhere.³⁷

276

277 **Water contact angle.** To estimate the wettability of the films, the contact angle of water
278 molecules on the films' surface was performed using a contact angle measuring system
279 (OCA 20, Data-physics) at room temperature and with air humidity control. 3 μ L of
280 ultrapure water was dispensed as a drop in the surface of each film (1 x 10 cm) using a
281 microsyringe. The contact angles of the drops were calculated using an image obtained
282 by the software dataphysics SCA20_M4, using the Laplace-Young method. All the
283 analysis were performed at least 40 times in both sides of the chitosan-based films.

284

285 **Solubility.** The film solubility was determined placing one square (4 cm²) of each film
286 prepared in 30 mL of 50:50 (V/V) water:ethanol mixture, at room temperature, with
287 orbital agitation (80 rpm) for a maximum of 7 days. Then, the films were placed in an
288 oven at 105 °C for 16 h. After cooling down to room temperature, the films were weighed.
289 The solubility was determined by the percentage of weight loss calculated as follows:

$$290 \quad \text{Weight loss (\%)} = 100 \times \frac{m_b - m_a}{m_b} \quad (\text{Eq.1})$$

291 where m_b and m_a are the weight of dry film before and after being immersed in the
292 water:ethanol mixture, respectively. This determination was performed in triplicate. The

293 films moisture was determined in triplicate by measuring their loss of weight, upon drying
294 in an oven at 105 °C until reaching a constant weight (dry film weight).

295 **Antioxidant activity.** The antioxidant analysis of the films was evaluated by the method
296 of 2,2'-Azino-bis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid), ABTS, described in
297 literature.³⁸ The same approach was already used in chitosan-based films in previous
298 works of the group.³⁷⁻³⁹ Briefly, one square (1 cm²) of each film was placed in 3 mL of
299 ABTS⁺ solution and after 15 min (T₀) the absorbance of the solution at 734 nm (Jenway
300 6405 UV/Vis) was measured. The antioxidant activity of the films was monitored after
301 01, 05 and 20 days post preparation. All measurements were performed at least 4 times.
302 The antioxidant activity was expressed by the percentage of inhibition of the ABTS⁺,
303 calculated by equation 1:

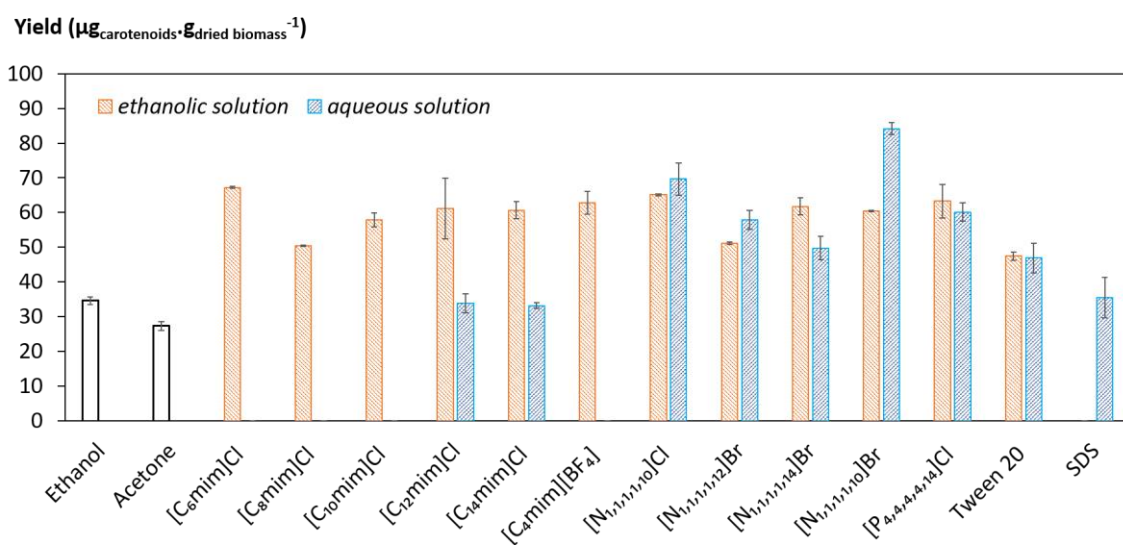
$$304 \text{ inhibition ratio (\%)} = 100 \times \frac{A_b - A_f}{A_b} \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

305 where A_b and A_f are the absorbance of the blank (without any film) and films'
306 solutions, respectively.

307 **Results and discussion**

308 **Optimization of IL type and solid-liquid extraction conditions.** Considering the high
309 hydrophobicity of carotenoids and the purity levels required for their application on the
310 preparation of biodegradable chitosan-based membranes, the first step carried on this
311 work was the proper selection of the most efficient solvent to recover the carotenoids. In
312 our previous work, recent published,³³ we developed a downstream process mediated by
313 non-tensioactive imidazolium IL ([C₄mim][BF₄]), which was able to recovery a total of
314 143 μg_{carotenoids.gdried biomass⁻¹}, also using peach palm fruits. However, some gaps
315 considering the safety of applying these pigments is questionable, since IL-residual may
316 be present into the carotenoid extract. Besides, the extracts were obtained using
317 ultrasound-assisted as main homogenization technique, which increases the final cost and

318 difficult the scaling-up of the process. In this work, in order to facilitate and improve the
 319 extraction procedure, and envisioning an application under the food industry, we tested
 320 the extraction efficiency of eleven ILs (with and without tensioactive nature) and two
 321 common surfactants was tested in both aqueous and ethanolic solutions (Figure 1) were
 322 tested. The common tensioactive compounds, sodium lauryl sulfate (SDS, anionic) and
 323 polysorbate 20 (Tween 20, non-ionic), were selected since they were reported as efficient
 324 solvents on the recovery of carotenoids from other rich-carotenoids matrices.⁴⁰⁻⁴³



325
 326 **Figure 1.** Screening of eleven ILs and two common surfactants on the extraction of
 327 carotenoids from peach palm fruits using aqueous (■) and ethanolic (■) solutions. Ethanol
 328 and acetone were used as controls (white bars).

329
 330 The results depicted in Figure 1 suggest that, for the extraction of carotenoids, the use
 331 of aqueous solutions (blue bars) instead of ethanolic solutions (orange bars) is the best
 332 approach. The conventional extractions by acetone and ethanol achieved the lowest yields
 333 of extraction obtained in the present work; $35 \pm 1 \mu\text{g}_{\text{carotenoids}} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{dried biomass}}^{-1}$ and 27 ± 1
 334 $\mu\text{g}_{\text{carotenoids}} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{dried biomass}}^{-1}$, respectively. Moreover, all aqueous solutions composed of ILs
 335 had yields of extraction equivalent or higher than those reported for conventional organic

336 solvents. Actually, the aqueous solutions of non-tensioactive ILs, namely 1-hexyl-3-
337 methylimidazolium chloride [C₆mim]Cl, 1-octyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride
338 [C₈mim]Cl, 1-decyl-3-methylimidazolium chloride [C₁₀mim]Cl, 1-Butyl-3-
339 methylimidazolium tetrafluoroborate [C₄mim][BF₄], were not able to extract carotenoids
340 using shaker homogenization,^{41,44}.

341 The poor capacity of non-tensioactive ILs to extract hydrophobic compounds has
342 been discussed in other works and justified by the poor affinity on non-tensioactive
343 solvents to interact with the membranes of the cells and by their lower capacity to
344 solubilize hydrophobic compounds in water. A more aggressive homogenization
345 technique seem to be necessary in order to extract lipophilic compounds using non-
346 tensioactive IL, as showed in some recent works.^{33,45,46} Moreover, our results also suggest
347 that aqueous solutions of [N_{1,1,1,10}]Br are the best solvent to extract the carotenoids,
348 achieving an extraction yield of $84 \pm 2 \mu\text{g}_{\text{carotenoids}} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{dried biomass}}^{-1}$.

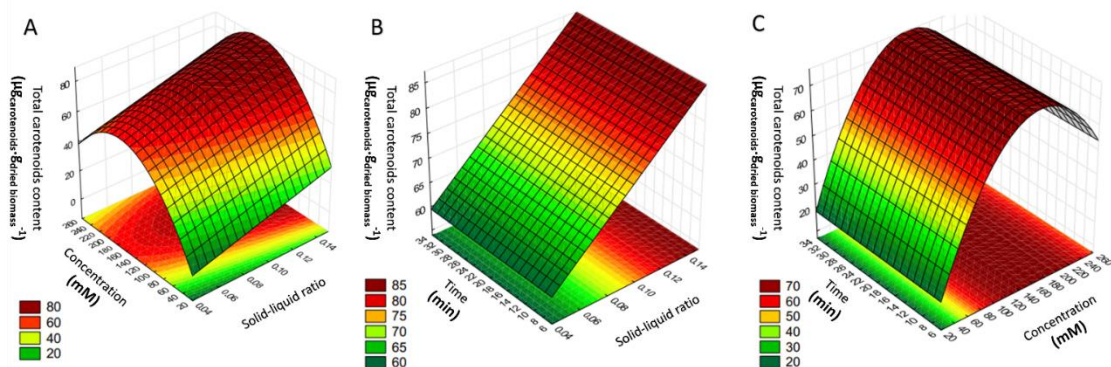
349 In an attempt to design a sustainable process, the aqueous solution of [N_{1,1,1,10}]Br,
350 selected was further used on the optimization of the process conditions by applying a 2³
351 factorial planning. Here, the solid-liquid ratio [R_(S/L)], concentration of [N_{1,1,1,10}]Br
352 (Conc_{IL}) and time of extraction (time) were the conditions optimized (Table S3 from ESI).
353 The yield of extraction of carotenoids was used as the dependent variable in the definition
354 of the predictive model represented by Equation 1. The yield of extraction of the
355 carotenoids experimentally determined and predicted, as well as the statistical analyses
356 performed, are shown in Table S3 in ESI. The model was adjusted with a confidence level
357 of 95% and considered as a highly predictive model. Briefly, the results show that the
358 R_(S/L) and the IL concentration were the independent variables with higher influence on
359 the extraction yield of carotenoids. A maximum extraction yield of $92 \mu\text{g}_{\text{carotenoids}} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{dried}}$
360 biomass^{-1} was obtained for the conditions R_(S/L) = 0.15, Conc_{IL} = 140 mM at 20 min (Assay

361 10). Furthermore, the results showed the negligible impact of time on the yield of
 362 extraction, demonstrated by the extraction yields that do not change between 8.2 and 31.8
 363 minutes (Figure 2 and Figure S1 from ESI), which is an advantage from the process point
 364 of view. The model was further validated using the optimal conditions ($R_{(S/L)} = 0.15$,
 365 $Conc_{IL} = 140$ mM in aqueous solution for 8.2 minutes). Therefore, the average extraction
 366 yield obtained in the validation tests was $88.7 \pm 0.9 \mu\text{g}_{\text{carotenoids}} \cdot \text{g}_{\text{dried biomass}}^{-1}$, which
 367 corresponds to a relative deviation of 1.5%, evidencing the high confidence and accuracy
 368 of the model. Besides, comparing the optimized results using aqueous-solution of
 369 $[N_{1,1,1,10}]Br$ and acetone (as main conventional organic solvent), we achieved an
 370 equivalent HPLC-DAD profile for both extracts, showing that the alternative process
 371 developed in this work did not impairs the extraction of any carotenoid commonly present
 372 in peach palm (Figure 3, Table S4 from ESI).

373
$$\text{total carotenoid content } (\mu\text{g} \cdot \text{g}^{-1}) = -23.61 + 252.18(x_1) + 0.90(x_2) -$$

 374
$$0.003(x_2)^2 \quad (\text{Eq. 3})$$

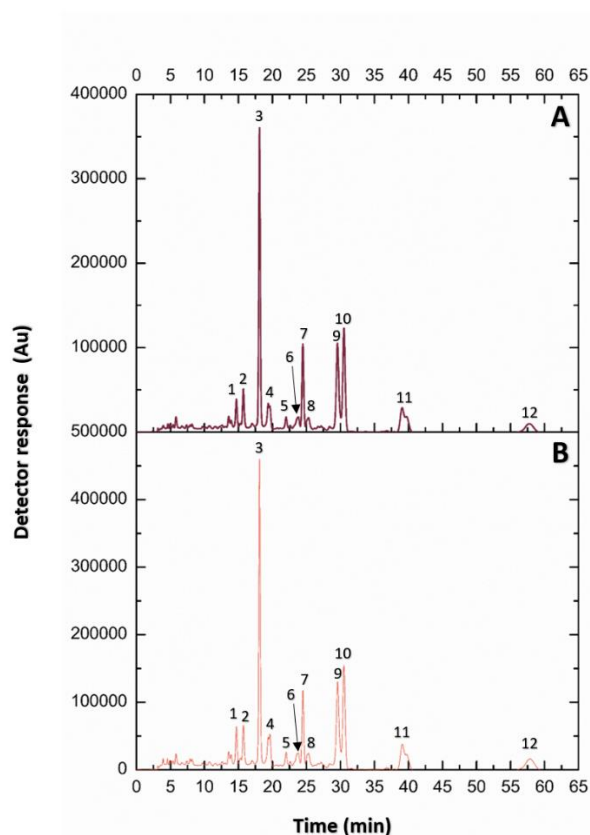
375



376

377 **Figure 2.** Response surface plots obtained for the factorial planning design (2^3)
 378 considering as independent variables the $R_{(S/L)}$, $Conc_{IL}$ (mM) and time (min) towards the
 379 yield of extraction of carotenoids (total carotenoids content) as the dependent variable.

380 The combination between independent variables were performed according to $R_{(S/L)}$ and
381 $Conc_{IL}$ (A), Time and $R_{(S/L)}$ (B), $Conc_{IL}$ and Time (C).



382

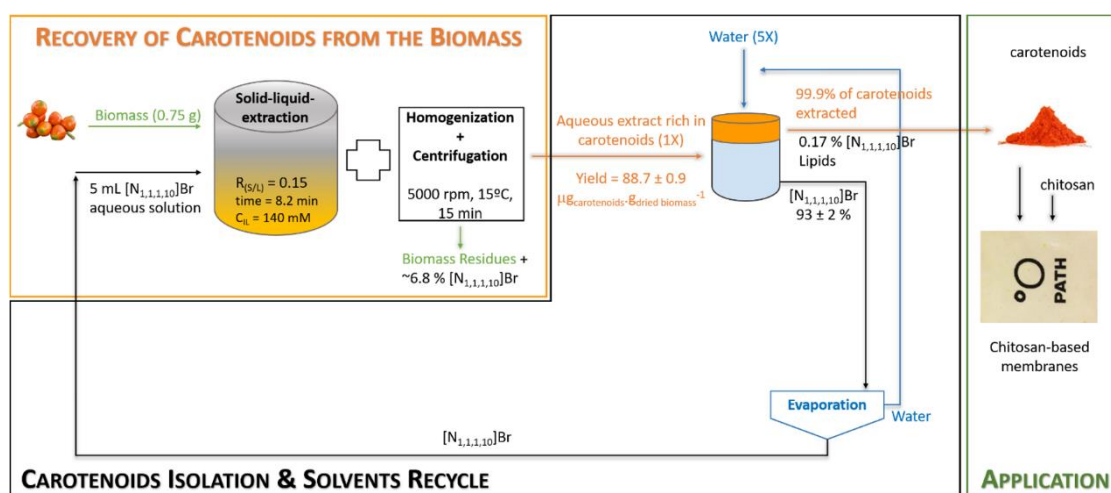
383 **Figure 3.** Chromatogram obtained by HPLC-DAD processed at 450 nm of the
384 carotenoids extracts obtained by the conventional extraction using acetone (A) and by the
385 alternative extraction performed by aqueous-solution of $[N_{1,1,1,10}]Br$. See
386 chromatographic identification peaks in Table S4 from ESI.

387

388 **Carotenoids' polishing and IL' recycling.** To envision the industrial application of an
389 extraction process, the solvents recyclability should be achieved. For this, two issues must
390 be addressed, namely the complete isolation of the biomolecules from the solvents and
391 the solvents recovery and reuse. In this work, considering the carotenoids hydrophobic
392 nature and taking into account the structural features of $[N_{1,1,1,10}]Br$, the isolation of

393 carotenoids from the aqueous solution was investigated by applying water as an anti-
394 solvent.⁴⁷ In this case, the rationale was that the addition of water is able to decrease
395 significantly the IL concentration in solution, thus reducing the solvation potential of
396 $[N_{1,1,1,10}]Br$,^{48,49} decreasing the solubility of carotenoids in the medium. The amount of
397 water was optimized by evaluating the effect of diluting the extract rich in carotenoids by
398 a factor of 2, 3, 5, 10, and 50. As depicted in Figure S2 from ESI, the dilution conditions
399 by factors of 2 and 3, were not able to isolate the carotenoids from the solvents. However,
400 for the dilutions by factors of 5, 10 and 50, a second thin layer was formed, clearly
401 evidencing the separation of carotenoids concentrated in the top phase and the aqueous
402 solution of $[N_{1,1,1,10}]Br$ as the bottom phase (Figure S2C). Instead of the precipitation of
403 carotenoids (Figure S2B), a pigmented top phase was formed (Figure S2C), a result
404 already reported in some works using anti-solvents.^{47,48,50} The “oily” layer formed, shows
405 a high lipidic content of 15.6 ± 0.3 wt% (Table S5 from ESI). As shown in Figure S2, the
406 carotenoids were suspended in the lipid’s solution, which prevented them from being
407 precipitated. According to literature,³² the carotenoids from peach palm fruits are in
408 intracellular lipid bodies, which explains the lipids’ simultaneous extraction and presence
409 in this second layer. From the $88.7 \pm 0.7 \mu g_{\text{carotenoids}} \cdot g_{\text{dried biomass}}^{-1}$ extracted by using the
410 aqueous solution of $[N_{1,1,1,10}]Br$, 99.9 ± 0.1 % of the total carotenoids were recovered in
411 the lipidic phase formed, while no carotenoids were detected in the IL-rich phase. Besides
412 the successful isolation of carotenoids, the recovery of the $[N_{1,1,1,10}]Br$ was also
413 successfully achieved, with only 0.17 ± 0.02 % of IL in the carotenoids phase, while 93
414 ± 2 % could be recovered and reused in new cycles of extraction (the rest of the IL was
415 lost in the biomass residues during extraction). Due to the economic interest in the
416 extraction, purification, and processing of carotenoids,⁵¹ we have designed an integrated
417 process, reproducible and with scale-up viability, depicted in Figure 3. After the isolation

418 step, part of the water added was removed by evaporation and the aqueous solution of IL
 419 was reintroduced in a new cycle of (solid-liquid) extraction, to test the extractive viability
 420 of the solvent recycled. A total of 4 cycles (first extraction + 3 cycles of reutilization of
 421 the solvents) were carried as depicted in Figure S3 from ESI. The results show that in the
 422 first 2 cycles, the yields of extraction of all carotenoids (insets A, B, C and D of Figure
 423 S2 from ESI) were not compromised, however after the third cycle a decay on the
 424 extraction yield (ANOVA $p < 0.05$) was observed. Nevertheless, even with the decrease
 425 observed for the yield of extraction, after cycle 3, the results are still more than twice as
 426 higher as those obtained for ethanol and acetone (Figure S3 from ESI). To decrease even
 427 more the environmental impact of the final process, the water removed may be again used
 428 as anti-solvent as also depicted in Figure 4.



429
 430 **Figure 4.** Schematic representation of the integrated process developed in this work
 431 contemplating the recovery of carotenoids from the biomass, followed by their isolation
 432 and solvents' recycle.

433 In addition to the recyclability potential of the IL, its selectivity on the extraction
 434 process was also experimentally assessed. According to Cláudio et al. (2014),⁵² the
 435 structural integrity of a biomass sample after the extraction process comprises the non-
 436 dissolution of significant amounts of carbohydrates, polysaccharides, fibers and other

437 essential compounds present in the biomass. The thermo gravimetric profiles of our
438 biomass before and after extraction mediated by the [N_{1,1,1,10}]Br aqueous solution are
439 identical (Figure S4 from ESI), thus confirming the integrity of the polymeric matrix, and
440 consequently the high selectivity of the IL applied in this process. Focusing the results
441 obtained for the carbohydrates (the most abundant class of compounds in this biomass),
442 no significant changes were detected on the amounts of xylose, glucose and uronic acids
443 present after extraction (Table S6 from ESI).

444 **Environmental evaluation of the carbon footprint and complete E-factor.** The
445 environmental sustainability of the process developed in this work was evaluated through
446 the carbon footprint and complete E-factor parameters. Data on the amounts of chemicals,
447 water and electricity consumed were obtained during the experiments (Table S1 from
448 ESI). Data on Greenhouse gas (GHG) emission factors from the production of chemicals,
449 water and electricity were taken from Ecoinvent database version 3.5 (Ecoinvent, 2018)
450 (Table S2 from ESI).³⁶ The results of both metrics are shown in Figure 5 and Table 1. In
451 this analysis, four scenarios were considered. *Scenarios 1* and *2* representing the methods
452 of extraction using aqueous solutions of [N_{1,1,1,10}]Br without and with the cycles of IL and
453 water reuse, respectively; and *Scenarios 3* and *4* for the conventional methods using
454 acetone and ethanol, respectively. Since different extraction yields of carotenoids were
455 obtained in each scenario, the metric results are expressed by 1 μg of extracted
456 carotenoids, allowing thus the direct comparison between scenarios (Table S7 from ESI).

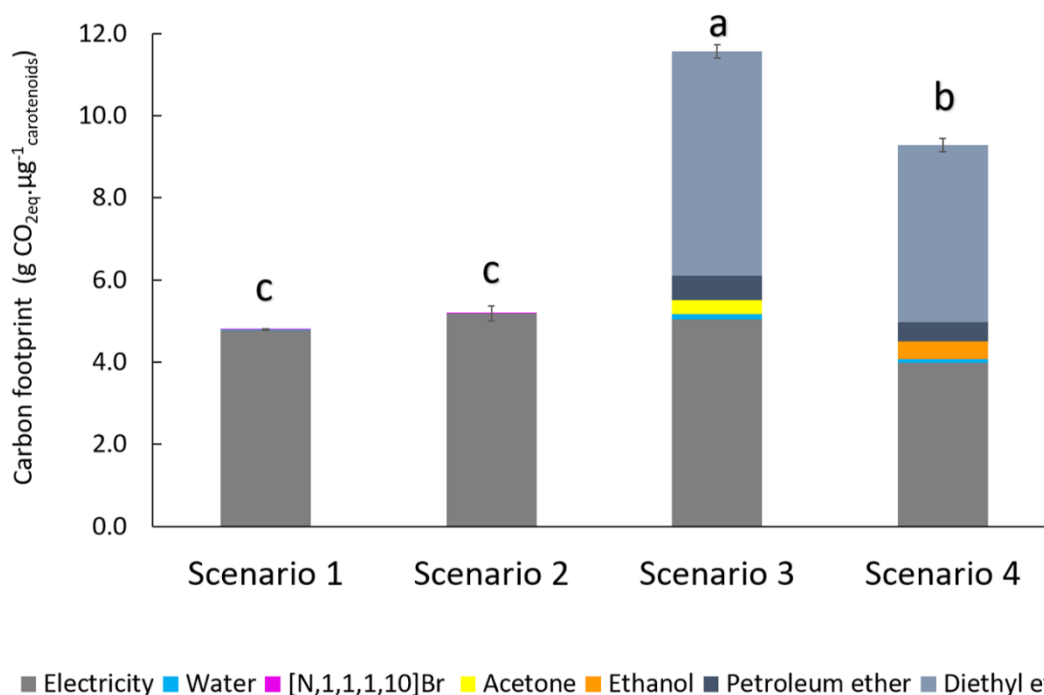
457 In terms of carbon footprint, Figure 4 and Table S1 from ESI show that *Scenarios 1*
458 and *2* have lower carbon footprint values than *Scenarios 3* and *4*. The *Scenario 2*
459 considers the recovery and reuse of [N_{1,1,1,10}]Br and water, with equivalent results
460 compared to **Scenario 1** (ANOVA $p > 0.05$), carbon footprint at $5.2 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ eq} \cdot \mu\text{g}^{-1}_{\text{carotenoids}}$
461 equivalent to *Scenario 1* ($4.8 \text{ g CO}_2 \text{ eq} \cdot \mu\text{g}^{-1}_{\text{carotenoids}}$). This occurs because, despite the

462 reduction of the IL used in *Scenario 2*, there is also a decrease in the carotenoids
463 extraction yield throughout the three new cycles of extraction. The main contribution to
464 the carbon footprint of *Scenarios 1* and *2* comes from the electricity consumption, mainly
465 from the evaporation and centrifugation units (53% and 47% of the total carbon footprint
466 for both scenarios, respectively), while the contribution of the IL for both *Scenarios 1*
467 and *2* is practically zero.

468 The *Scenario 3* (conventional method using acetone) has the worst environmental
469 performance, with a carbon footprint of $11.6 \text{ g CO}_{2 \text{ eq}} \cdot \mu\text{g}_{\text{carotenoids}}^{-1}$. In this scenario, the use
470 of ethyl ether and the electricity consumption represent the major contributions to the
471 total carbon footprint, with 47% and 43% (mostly from centrifugation), respectively. The
472 acetone is only responsible for 3% of the total carbon footprint of this scenario. Finally,
473 *Scenario 4* (conventional method using ethanol) has a total carbon footprint of
474 $9.3 \text{ g CO}_{2 \text{ eq}} \cdot \mu\text{g}_{\text{carotenoids}}^{-1}$. In this scenario, the ethyl ether and the electricity consumption
475 are again the main contributors to the total carbon footprint, with 46% and 42% (mostly
476 from centrifugation), respectively. The ethanol is only responsible for 5% of the total
477 carbon footprint. These results suggest that besides the IL-mediated downstream
478 processes being excellent performances regarding the yield of extraction, the alternative
479 carotenoids polishing performed by water as an anti-solvent are also extremely useful to
480 mitigate the environmental impact comparing with the diethyl and petroleum ether
481 polishing techniques, since at the scenarios 3 and 4 there are an intense impact regarding
482 the use of these conventional solvents.

483 In terms of complete E-factor, Table 1 shows that the recovery and reuse of the IL-
484 based aqueous solutions and water after the polishing steps resulted in a 99% reduction
485 of the complete E-factor in comparison with *Scenario 1*. In this scenario, the complete E-
486 factor is $0.3 \text{ g}_{\text{waste}} \cdot \mu\text{g}_{\text{carotenoids}}^{-1}$, because of the discarded IL and water. By applying the

487 conventional methods using acetone (*Scenario 3*) and ethanol (*Scenario 4*),
 488 $185.1 \text{ g}_{\text{waste}} \cdot \mu\text{g}_{\text{carotenoids}}^{-1}$ and $146.1 \text{ g}_{\text{waste}} \cdot \mu\text{g}_{\text{carotenoids}}^{-1}$, were respectively generated. Finally,
 489 for *Scenarios 3* and *4*, the discarded water contributes to almost 100% of the complete E-
 490 factor.



491 ■ Electricity ■ Water ■ [N_{1,1,1,10}]Br ■ Acetone ■ Ethanol ■ Petroleum ether ■ Diethyl ether
 492 **Figure 5.** The carbon footprint of the four scenarios investigated in this work. Scenarios
 493 1 and 2 for the methods of extraction using aqueous solutions of [N_{1,1,1,10}]Br without and
 494 with three cycles of IL and water reuse, respectively; and Scenarios 3 and 4 for the
 495 conventional methods using acetone and ethanol, respectively.

496 **Table 1.** Complete E-factor of the integrated process for obtaining carotenoids in four
 497 different scenarios. Scenario 1 – method with [N_{1,1,1,10}]Br without recovery and reuse of
 498 the IL-based aqueous solution and water from extraction and polishing stages; Scenario
 499 2 – method with [N_{1,1,1,10}]Br with recovery and reuse of the IL-based aqueous solution
 500 and water from extraction and polishing stages; Scenario 3 – conventional method using
 501 acetone; Scenario 4 – conventional method using ethanol.

Complete E-factor ($\text{g}_{\text{waste}} \cdot \mu\text{g}^{-1}_{\text{carotenoids}}$)				
Waste generated	Scenario 1	Scenario 2	Scenario 3	Scenario 4
[N _{1,1,1,10}]Br	2.3×10^{-3}	0	–	–
Acetone	–	–	0.1	–
Ethanol	–	–	–	0.1
Water	0.3	4.6×10^{-3}	182.9	144.4
Petroleum ether	–	–	1.3	1.0
Diethyl ether	–	–	0.8	0.6
Total	0.3	4.6×10^{-3}	185.1	146.1

502

503 **Preparation and characterization of chitosan films.** The development of an alternative
504 food-packaging biomaterial with the incorporation of bioactive compounds into edible
505 films and other biomaterials has become a feature nowadays.^{53,54} In addition, the recently
506 the Food and Drug Administration (FDA) recognizes as safe (GRAS status) the
507 incorporation into biodegradable films of compounds derived from fruit pulps.⁵⁵
508 However, most studies focus on the use of phenolic compounds and their role in the
509 biological properties of the films, such as antioxidant, antimicrobial and anti-
510 inflammatory activities.^{56–58} Despite the great interest in this field, the incorporation in
511 edible films of an extract rich in carotenoids has not yet been evaluated. In this work,
512 chitosan films were used as a matrix for the incorporation of carotenoids from *B. gasipaes*
513 fruits in three different doses (0.025 %, 0.050 %, and 0.100 % (w/w)), obtained from two
514 types of extraction, the here proposed using the IL as solvent, and the extract obtained
515 using acetone (Figure S5 from ESI).

516 The mechanical properties of the films were determined in order to evaluate the
517 influence of the carotenoids incorporation, since they could modify the structure of the
518 polymer matrix, by weakening the inter-chain bonds⁵⁹ and, consequently, modifying the
519 films mechanical properties.⁶⁰ The chitosan-based films without carotenoids (control) had
520 a tensile strength (σ_b) of 37 MPa, a Young's modulus 1.2 MPa and an elongation at break
521 (E_b) of 32%. The effects of incorporating carotenoids in different concentrations on

522 chitosan-based films are shown in Table 2. The film thickness was evaluated, since it is
523 an important parameter that influences the mechanical properties of the films.⁶¹ The
524 addition of carotenoids, regardless of dose, does not modify the thickness of the films
525 compared to the control group (ANOVA $p > 0.05$), which reflects the equivalent contact
526 area of the materials. All films composed of carotenoids have significant differences in
527 the mechanical properties when compared to control (Table 3 and Figure S5 from ESI).
528 The incorporation of the carotenoids obtained by the IL-based process, at the doses of
529 0.025 % and 0.050 %, do not change the tensile strength limit of the films (ANOVA $p >$
530 0.05). On the contrary, the incorporation of carotenoids at the dose of 0.100% obtained
531 by using IL as solvent and carotenoids obtained by acetone extractions (all doses),
532 decreased the tensile strength, meaning the decrease of the films' mechanical resistance.
533 The differences between the mechanical behavior of the films could be justified by the
534 effect of the carotenoids crystallization after the film storage process, which justifies that,
535 for the highest dose of carotenoids extracted by IL (0.100%), the film has a lower tensile
536 strength,⁶² contrarily to what happened in the work of Liu and collaborators,⁶³ where the
537 addition of curcumin to the chitosan-films increased the tensile strength.

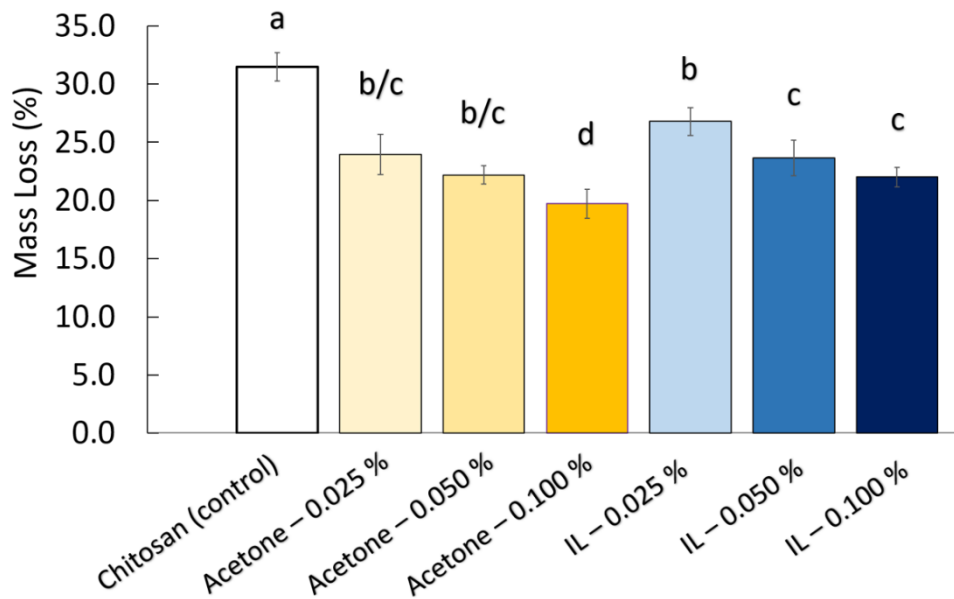
538 A higher elasticity (elongation at break) of the chitosan-based membranes was
539 obtained by the incorporation of 0.100% of carotenoids obtained by the IL-based process
540 (49 %) when compared with the control films (32 %), whereas the incorporation of
541 0.100% of carotenoids extracted by acetone have the lowest elasticity (12 %). In addition,
542 all films with carotenoids incorporated showed lower Young's modulus values in
543 comparison with the control, which means their higher ductility. Although all films
544 already have 0.1% of glycerol used as plasticizer, the addition of carotenoids influenced
545 this parameter, which seems to be attributed to the plasticizer action that carotenoids
546 could have on the carbohydrates network.⁵⁹

547 Comparing the enriched films of carotenoids obtained with IL and acetone, it seems
548 that the viscoelasticity properties are significantly different (Table 2). For example, at
549 0.100 % dose, the films enriched with carotenoids extracted by IL resemble elastomers
550 (E of 49 %), while the films enriched with carotenoids extracted by acetone have E of
551 12%, besides low tensile strength. Despite the wide range of applications of natural
552 biopolymers, the elastomer-like ones possess a robust interface,⁶⁴ since they can be
553 molded by a wide range of processes, due to their softness, flexibility, and resilience.⁶⁵
554 The surface wettability of the chitosan-based films incorporating the carotenoids was
555 evaluated by contact angle analysis using ultrapure water. The contact angle of all films
556 with different carotenoids doses are listed in Table 3. The films with carotenoids
557 incorporated revealed a slightly lower contact angle value in both film phases. These
558 results are somehow contrary to what was expected, a phenomenon that could be
559 explained by the amorphous and crystalline surfaces obtained after the incorporation of
560 carotenoids in the chitosan network bounds;⁶⁶ or by the spatial condition of the carbon
561 skeleton between the chitosan bounds, as previously reported for the addition of curcumin
562 also in chitosan-based membranes;⁶³ or even by the potential contamination of the
563 extracts derived from acetone extraction (acetone is not a selective solvent).

564 The films solubility was also determined after 7 days immersed in a mixture of 50:50
565 (v/v) of water:ethanol under continuous stirring. Figure 6 shows the weight loss
566 percentage for the films with carotenoids extracted with acetone and [N_{1,1,1,10}]Br as
567 solvents, as well as one film prepared only with chitosan (without carotenoids
568 incorporated) used as control. The control film presented the higher weight loss
569 percentage (32%), comparing with the weight loss determined for films prepared with
570 carotenoids obtained with acetone and IL as solvents (20-27%). The films prepared with
571 the carotenoids derived from the use of acetone as solvent showed a slightly lower

572 solubility, especially for the film with 0.100% of carotenoids extract (*T*-test: $p < 0.05$),
573 when compared with the film incorporating the carotenoids extracted by the IL. Summing
574 up, the carotenoids incorporation resulted in a decrease in the films solubility, due to the
575 hydrophobicity of carotenoids incorporated in the chitosan matrix, however with no loss
576 of the IL remaining in the carotenoids extract (around 0.17%) to the water, which was
577 proved by the absence of bromide anions determined by ionic chromatography, thus
578 demonstrating the development of a safe biomaterial.

579 The antioxidant activity of the films was also tested for three different periods after
580 their production, namely 1, 5 and 20 days (Figure S6 from ESI). Briefly, and as expected,
581 the films with carotenoids showed higher antioxidant activity when compared with the
582 control films. It is observed that the maximum dose of carotenoids incorporated in films
583 (0.100%) have the highest antioxidant activity, for both strategies of extraction (IL and
584 acetone). In all doses (0.025, 0.050 and 0.100 %) and for all times tested (15, 30, 60 and
585 120 min) the films enriched with carotenoids obtained by using IL as solvent have the
586 highest antioxidant activity data, which was maintained during the 20 days of evaluation.
587 This can be justified by the highest selectivity of the IL carrying the extraction of
588 carotenoids, when compared with the films incorporating the carotenoids extracted by
589 acetone.^{37,38}



590

591 **Figure 6.** Weight loss percentage determined for the chitosan-based films solubility test,
 592 after 7 days in a water:ethanol mixture.

593

594 **Table 2.** Mechanical properties of films with and without carotenoids incorporated.
 595 Different letters in the same column indicate significant differences (Bonferroni pos-hoc
 596 test, $p < 0.05$)

Films	Young's modulus (<i>E</i>)	Tensile strength (MPa)	Elongation at break (%)
Control	1.2 ± 0.2 ^a	37 ± 6 ^a	32 ± 4 ^{b/c}
IL 0.025 %	0.6 ± 0.2 ^b	34 ± 5 ^a	35 ± 4 ^b
IL 0.050 %	0.4 ± 0.1 ^b	35 ± 8 ^a	38 ± 5 ^b
IL 0.100 %	0.05 ± 0.02 ^c	18 ± 1 ^{b/c}	49 ± 6 ^a
Acetone 0.025 %	0.4 ± 0.1 ^b	22 ± 3 ^b	29 ± 6 ^c
Acetone 0.050 %	0.5 ± 0.1 ^b	19 ± 7 ^b	31 ± 8 ^c
Acetone 0.100 %	0.53 ± 0.08 ^b	13 ± 2 ^c	12 ± 3 ^d

597

598 **Table 3.** Contact angle (°) measures from chitosan-based films in both bottom and top
 599 surfaces. Different letters in the same column indicate significant differences (Bonferroni
 600 pos-hoc test, $p < 0.05$).

	Films	Bottom phase	Top phase
601	Control	108 ± 8^a	100 ± 7^a
602	IL 0.025 %	92 ± 4^b	90 ± 5^b
603	IL 0.050 %	$85 \pm 6^{b/c}$	80 ± 4^b
604	IL 0.100 %	87 ± 3^b	76 ± 6^b
605	Acetone 0.025 %	93 ± 7^b	77 ± 9^b
606	Acetone 0.050 %	91 ± 3^b	$72 \pm 6^{b/c}$
607	Acetone 0.100 %	72 ± 8^c	69 ± 6^c

608 **Conclusions**

609 An extraction process of all-*trans*- β -carotene, all-*trans*-lycopene and all-*trans*- γ -
 610 carotene from the fruit biomass of the Amazonian tree *Bactris gasipaes* was successfully
 611 developed in this work using an ionic liquid-based extraction. $[N_{1,1,1,10}]Br$ in water was
 612 selected as the most efficient solvent to maximize the selective extraction of carotenoids
 613 (yield of extraction of $88.7 \pm 0.9 \mu g_{\text{carotenoids}} \cdot g_{\text{dried biomass}}^{-1}$), for the optimum conditions of
 614 8.2 minutes, 140 mM of IL and $R_{(S/L)}$ of 0.15. Besides the highest yield of extraction, the
 615 use of aqueous solutions of $[N_{1,1,1,10}]Br$ allowed the development of an integrated process
 616 in which the isolation of the carotenoids and recyclability of the solvents, IL and water,
 617 were successfully and easily achieved by using water as an anti-solvent. In addition, the
 618 reuse of the IL for a total of four cycles of extraction was optimized, which helped to
 619 significantly decrease the environmental impact of the IL-based process, a result
 620 demonstrated by the carbon footprint and complete E-factor assessment. Proved the
 621 efficiency and low environmental impact of the process, and after isolation, the
 622 carotenoids were applied on the development and optimization of a task-specific

623 chitosan-based film applicable in food packaging, with very advantageous results
624 obtained for tensile strength, Young's modulus, elongation at break, elasticity, film
625 thickness, wettability, solubility in water and, in particular for antioxidant activity, which
626 was maintained in the highest levels during 20 days of experiment.

627

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640 **Conflicts of interest**

641

642 There are no conflicts to declare.

643

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